ORIGINAL PAPER

Glycyrrhizae Radix suppresses lipopolysaccharide‑ and diazepam‑induced nerve infammation in the hippocampus, and contracts the duration of pentobarbital‑ induced loss of righting refex in a mouse model

Kei Kawada^{1,2}® [·](http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1397-6128) Tomoaki Ishida² · Kohei Jobu² · Shumpei Morisawa^{1,2} · Motoki Nishida^{1,2} · Naohisa Tamura^{1,2} · **Saburo Yoshioka2 · Mitsuhiko Miyamura1,2**

Received: 29 August 2022 / Accepted: 10 April 2023 / Published online: 28 April 2023 © The Author(s) under exclusive licence to The Japanese Society of Pharmacognosy 2023

Abstract

Nerve infammation is linked to the development of various neurological disorders. This study aimed to examine whether Glycyrrhizae Radix efectively infuences the duration of the pentobarbital-induced loss of righting refex, which may increase in a mouse model of lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced nerve infammation and diazepam-induced γ-aminobutyric acid receptor hypersensitivity. Furthermore, we examined the anti-infammatory efects of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract on LPS-stimulated BV2 microglial cells, in vitro. Treatment with Glycyrrhizae Radix signifcantly decreased the duration of pentobarbitalinduced loss of righting refex in the mouse model. Furthermore, treatment with Glycyrrhizae Radix signifcantly attenuated the LPS-induced increases in interleukin-1β, interleukin-6, and tumor necrosis factor-alpha at the mRNA level, and it signifcantly reduced the number of ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule-1-positive cells in the hippocampal dentate gyrus 24 h after LPS treatment. Treatment with Glycyrrhizae Radix also suppressed the release of nitric oxide, interleukin-1β, interleukin-6, and tumor necrosis factor protein in culture supernatants of LPS-stimulated BV2 cells. In addition, glycyrrhizic acid and liquiritin, active ingredients of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract, reduced the duration of pentobarbital-induced loss of righting refex. These fndings suggest that Glycyrrhizae Radix, as well as its active ingredients, glycyrrhizic acid and liquiritin, may be efective therapeutic agents for the treatment of nerve infammation-induced neurological disorders.

 \boxtimes Kei Kawada jm-kei_kawada@kochi-u.ac.jp

¹ Graduate School of Integrated Arts and Sciences, Kochi University, 185-1 Kohasu, Oko, Nankoku, Kochi, Japan

² Department of Pharmacy, Kochi Medical School Hospital, 185-1 Kohasu, Oko-cho, Nankoku, Kochi, Japan

Graphical abstract

Keywords Glycyrrhizae Radix · Glycyrrhizic acid · Liquiritin · Mouse model · Nerve infammation · Loss of righting refex

Introduction

Nerve infammation is linked to the development of various neurological disorders. Acute nerve infammation is associated with the development of delirium [[1,](#page-8-0) [2\]](#page-8-1), and chronic nerve infammation is involved in diseases, such as Alzheimer's disease, depression, Parkinson's disease, and dementia $[3-5]$ $[3-5]$. To the best of our knowledge, no effective therapeutic drug targeting nerve infammation has been developed to treat these neurological disorders. Thus, novel strategies designed to suppress nerve infammation are an attractive avenue to treat neurological disorders.

Lipopolysaccharide (LPS), which is a component of the outer membrane of the cell wall of gram-negative bacteria, is typically used to induce nerve infammation in rodents [\[6\]](#page-9-2). LPS-induced nerve infammation enhances γ-aminobutyric acid (GABA) activity by increasing the surface expression of $GABA_A$ receptors in nerve cells and GABA-elicited chloride currents in the hippocampal neurons through the phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase/ Akt pathway [[7](#page-9-3)]. The amplitude of pharmacologically isolated postsynaptic GABAergic potentials signifcantly increased after LPS exposure [[8\]](#page-9-4). Therefore, LPS-induced nerve infammation may induce over-sedation by increasing GABA activity. Additionally, hypnotic barbiturates enhance the activation of $GABA_A$ receptors by $GABA$ [[9](#page-9-5)]. Thus, LPS-induced nerve infammation in mice extends the length of pentobarbital-induced loss of righting refex (LORR) [[7,](#page-9-3) [10](#page-9-6)], and this is further enhanced by low-dose

administration of the benzodiazepine, diazepam [[7](#page-9-3)]. The development of over-sedation associated with infection and post-surgery infammation may be attributed to GABAergic hyperactivity with neuroinflammation [[10](#page-9-6)]. In clinical practice, benzodiazepines for the treatment of insomnia and sedation are frequently used to treat infammation associated with surgery and infection $[11]$ $[11]$. Therefore, in mice, evaluating the length of LPS- and diazepammediated LORR induced by pentobarbital could be used to evaluate over-sedation caused by nerve infammation postoperatively [[12\]](#page-9-8).

Glycyrrhizae Radix, which is commonly known as licorice, is one of the most commonly used herbal medicines in traditional drugs, foods, and cosmetics. It is used as an antitussive, expectorant, and antipyretic for its role in relieving cough, pharyngitis, bronchitis, and bronchial asthma [\[13,](#page-9-9) [14\]](#page-9-10). Glycyrrhizae Radix has anti-infammatory properties and is widely prescribed clinically [[15](#page-9-11)]. It has also been reported to be useful for neurological disorders, such as Parkinson's disease [\[16\]](#page-9-12). Therefore, Glycyrrhizae Radix may be useful for the treatment of neurological disorders caused by nerve infammation.

This study aimed to examine whether Glycyrrhizae Radix efectively decreases the duration of pentobarbitalinduced LORR, which is extended following LPS and diazepam administration in a mouse model mimicking post-surgical nerve infammatory conditions [\[12](#page-9-8)]. We further investigated whether Glycyrrhizae Radix efectively infuences nerve infammation of the hippocampus. Finally, we examined the anti-inflammatory in vitro effects

of Glycyrrhizae Radix on LPS-stimulated BV2 microglial cells.

Materials and methods

Animals

Male Jcl:ICR mice (9–11 weeks old; Japan CLEA, Shizuoka, Japan), with an initial weight of 26–35 g, were housed and allowed to habituate for more than 1 week prior to the start of experimentation. Animals were maintained in a temperature- $(23 \pm 1 \degree C)$ and humidity-controlled room $(55 \pm 2\%)$; one animal was housed per cage under a constant day-night rhythm (lights were on from 07:00 to 19:00). Standard laboratory food (CE-2 from Japan CLEA) and water were available ad libitum. Animal experiments were approved by the Committee for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals at Kochi University (approval no. O-0009; April 23, 2021).

Drugs

On the day of testing, the following drugs were used: LPS (*Escherichia coli*, O127:B8 L4516; Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO, USA), diazepam (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd., Osaka, Japan), and pentobarbital sodium (Kyoritsu Seiyaku Co., Tokyo, Japan). All drugs were injected intraperitoneally (i.p.) after being dissolved in saline. Glycyrrhizic acid (GL) and liquiritin (LQ; Tokyo Chemical Industry Co., Tokyo, Japan) were suspended in water on the day of testing. GL (50 mg/kg) and LQ (25 mg/kg) were orally administered (p.o.). Glycyrrhizae Radix extract was also orally administered (500, 1000, and 2000 mg/kg p.o.). The doses of GL and LQ were determined by converting the amount contained in 1000 mg/kg of Glycyrrhizae Radix [\[17](#page-9-13)]. Dried roots and stolons of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* Fisher (lot: R17871) were purchased from Tsumura (Tokyo, Japan). The crude drug was extracted using hot water with 20 times the volume of purifed water by weight. We obtained an extract of 3.08 ± 0.08 g from 20 g of the dried roots and stolons of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* Fisher. The GL and LQ contents in 1.0 g of the dried roots and stolons of *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* Fisher were 25.8 ± 1.8 mg and 5.9 ± 0.5 mg, respectively, procured using the following process: Glycyrrhizae Radix hot water extract (1.0 g preparation) was obtained using 20 mL of methanol with sonication for 30 min. The extract $(20 \mu L)$ was injected into a Shimadzu LC-20 system (Shimadzu Corporation, Kyoto, Japan), which consisted of a Shimadzu LC-20 AR HPLC pump, Shimadzu series DGU-20A3R degasser, and Shimadzu SIL-20 A autosampler. For the three-dimensional (3D)-HPLC profle, TSK gel ODS-80TS (250×4.6 mm; Tosoh, Tokyo, Japan) was maintained at 40 °C with a mobile phase linear gradient from 90% A (50 mM AcOH–AcONH₄ buffer) and 10% B (CH_3CN) to 100% B in 60 min. The 3D-HPLC profile of the Glycyrrhizae Radix hot water extract is shown as Online Resource 1.

For GL and LQ measurements, COSMOSIL 5C18-AR-II (150×4.6 mm; Nakarai Tesque, Kyoto, Japan) was controlled at 40 °C. The mobile phase A solution comprised 0.2 vol% formic acid/water, and the mobile phase B solution was acetonitrile. The mobile phase comprised solution A and solution B with a solution B gradient (0–10 min, 17%; 12–18 min, 50%; 20–23 min, 95%) at a fow rate of 1.0 mL/ min. GL and LQ were measured at wavelengths of 250 nm and 275 nm, respectively.

Study design

Glycyrrhizae Radix or a Glycyrrhizae Radix component (GL or LQ) was given orally on the frst day [\[11](#page-9-7)], followed by the administration of a single dose every 24 h. The same amount of water (0.5 mL/body) was administered to control group mice. On the second day, 2 h after Glycyrrhizae Radix*,* GL, or LQ administration, mice were intraperitoneally injected with LPS (300 μg/kg). The same amount of saline (0.5 mL/ body) was injected into the control group mice. On day 3, 2 h after Glycyrrhizae Radix*,* GL, or LQ administration, mice were intraperitoneally injected with diazepam (300 μg/ kg), followed by an intraperitoneal injection of pentobarbital sodium (50 mg/kg) after 30 min. The LORR duration was recorded as the time between the loss and recovery of the righting movement. Mice failing to fall asleep within 15 min of pentobarbital administration were excluded [[7,](#page-9-3) [12,](#page-9-8) [18,](#page-9-14) [19](#page-9-15)]. The study design is shown in Fig. [1](#page-3-0)a.

On day 2, 2 h after LPS injection, blood was removed by transcardial perfusion with ice-cold phosphate-bufered saline (PBS), followed by brain removal. mRNA expression measurements used these tissue samples from the hippocampus. On day 3 after Glycyrrhizae Radix or water administration, blood was removed by transcardial perfusion with ice-cold PBS, followed by brain removal. Immunohistochemistry used these tissue samples from the hippocampus. The study design is shown in Fig. [1b](#page-3-0).

To extract total mRNA, hippocampal samples were cut into $0.1 \times 0.1 \times 0.1 \times$ em pieces and further homogenized using an ultrasonic homogenizer (NR-50 M; Microtech, Chiba, Japan). Then, total RNA was extracted using the RNeasy Lipid Tissue Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany). To obtain cDNA, reverse transcription was performed using a PrimeScript RT reagent kit (Takara Bio, Otsu, Japan), and TaqMan quantitative polymerase chain reaction (PCR) was performed using a StepOnePlus real-time PCR system (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA, USA). The mRNA expression levels of interleukin (IL)-1β, IL-6, and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) were normalized to that of

Fig. 1 Study design. **a** Evaluation schedule of the pentobarbitalinduced loss of righting refex duration in a mouse model. **b** Biochemical assessment schedule in a mouse model. *LPS* lipopolysaccharide

glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) mRNA. TaqMan universal PCR master mix and PCR primers with TaqMan probes for GAPDH (Mm99999915_g1), TNF-α (Mm00443258_m1), and IL-6 (Mm00446190_m1) were purchased from Applied Biosystems.

Immunohistochemistry

Mice brains were removed after transcardiac perfusion with saline and 4% paraformaldehyde in 0.1 M PBS (pH 7.4). The brains were post-fxed overnight in 4% paraformaldehyde and further immersed in 20% aqueous sucrose for 48 h. Then, these were frozen on powdered dry ice, and coronal sections containing the hippocampal dentate gyrus were prepared to a thickness of 30 μm using a cryostat. These sections were immersed in 10 mM PBS containing 0.2% Triton X-100 (PBST) for 30 min at 20–25 °C. Furthermore, after 2 h of incubation in 3% bovine serum albumin in PBST, the sections were immersed in rabbit anti-mouse ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule-1 (Iba1) antibody (dilution 1:500; Wako) and incubated overnight at 4 °C. The sections were then washed in PBST and incubated with Alexa Fluor 488-labeled donkey anti-rabbit immunoglobulin G antibody (diluted

1:500 in PBST; Invitrogen, Waltham, MA, USA) for 1 h at 20–25 °C. Sections were then washed in PBST and mounted using mounting media (Vectashield; Vector Laboratories, Peterborough, UK). Slides were excited with Alexa Fluor 488 dye using a mercury vapor lamp and a 470–490-nm bandpass flter, and analyzed with a fuorescence microscope (FV-1000D; Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). The light emitted from Alexa Fluor 488 was focused using a 515–550 nm bandpass flter. The stained cells were photographed at $200 \times$ magnification. Iba1-positive cells in the bilateral hippocampal dentate gyrus (bregma − 1.5 mm to − 2.5 mm) were counted in any two hippocampal sections of each mouse, such that each set contained sections covering the entire anterior–posterior axis of the hippocampus. Iba1-positive and DAPI-positive cells in the dentate gyrus were counted by an investigator blinded to group assignment using WinRoof software (Mitani Corporation, Fukui, Japan). Iba1-positive cells were counted when DAPIstained cells and Iba-1 antibody-stained cells overlapped.

BV2 microglial cell culture

BV2 microglial cells were purchased from AcceGen Biotechnology (ABC-TC212S; Fairfeld, NJ, USA). BV2 cells were maintained at 37 $\mathrm{^{\circ}C}$ and 5% CO₂ in Dulbecco's Modifed Eagle Medium supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum, 100 U/mL penicillin, and 0.10 mg/mL streptomycin. BV2 cells were grown in 24-well plates at a concentration of 5.0×10^5 cells/well. BV2 cells were stimulated with 1 μ g/mL LPS; cells were also simultaneously treated with Glycyrrhizae Radix extract (50, 100, 200 µg/mL) or 1.0 µM dexamethasone (Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd.), as a positive control, and incubated at 37 °C for 24 h [[20\]](#page-9-16). The culture supernatant was then collected and nitric oxide (NO) was measured by Griess assay, and THE IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α levels were measured using an ELISA kit (R&D Systems, Minnesota, MN, USA) in accordance with the manufacturer's instructions.

Statistical analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using EZR version 1.29 (Saitama Medical Center, Jichi Medical University, Saitama, Japan) [\[21–](#page-9-17)[23\]](#page-9-18). Data are expressed as means \pm standard deviations (SDs). One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to examine the signifcance of drug treatment efects, followed by Tukey's test as a multiple comparison test, to evaluate diferences between groups. For comparisons between the two groups, Student's t-test was used. Statistical signifcance was set at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract for reducing pentobarbital‑induced LORR duration in a mouse model of nerve infammation

We examined the efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix administration for reducing the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR in a mouse model that simulated post-surgical nerve inflammation. As shown in Fig. [2a](#page-4-0), one-way ANOVA revealed a signifcant drug efect on the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR $(F(4, 45) = 10.1, P < 0.01)$. LPS treatment signifcantly increased the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR compared to that in the control group (*P*<0.01). Glycyrrhizae Radix extract at 1.0 and 2.0 g/kg body weight signifcantly decreased the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR compared to that in the LPS-treated group ($P < 0.05$). Further, as shown in Fig. [2](#page-4-0)b, Glycyrrhizae Radix had no efect on the duration of pentobarbitalinduced LORR without LPS administration in this mouse model $(P = 0.40)$.

Efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract for reducing the IL‑1β, IL‑6, and TNF‑α mRNA levels in the hippocampus in LPS‑treated mice

We examined the efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix administration for reducing the IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α mRNA levels in the hippocampus in a mouse model that simulated postsurgical nerve infammation. As shown in Fig. [3](#page-5-0), one-way ANOVA revealed signifcant drug efects on the expression of IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF-α (IL-1β: F(2, 15)=19.3, *P*<0.01; IL-6: F(2, 15) = 36.9, $P < 0.01$; TNF- α : F(2, 15) = 48.6, *P*<0.01). LPS treatment significantly increased the mRNA expressions of IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α compared to those in the control group (IL-1β, *P*<0.01; IL-6, *P*<0.01; TNF-α, *P*<0.01). Glycyrrhizae Radix extract treatment at 2.0 g/kg body weight induced a signifcant decrease in the mRNA expression of IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α compared to that in the LPS-treated group (Glycyrrhizae Radix: IL-1β, *P*<0.05; IL-6, *P*<0.01; TNF-α, *P*<0.01).

Efcacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract for reducing the number of Iba1‑positive cells in the subgranular zone of the hippocampal dentate gyrus in LPS‑treated mice

We examined the efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix administration for reducing the number of Iba1-positive cells in the subgranular zone of the hippocampal dentate gyrus in a mouse model that simulated post-surgical nerve infammation. As shown in Fig. [4](#page-5-1), one-way ANOVA revealed a signifcant drug efect on the number of Iba1-positive cells $(F(2, 15) = 192.1, P < 0.01)$. The administration of LPS induced a signifcant increase in the number of Iba1-positive hippocampal cells compared to that in the control group (*P*<0.01). Glycyrrhizae Radix administration signifcantly decreased Iba1-positive cells compared to that in the LPStreated group $(P < 0.01)$. Furthermore, under LPS administration, cell bodies became hypertrophied and amoeboid; however, Glycyrrhizae Radix administration suppressed these morphological changes (qualitative observations).

Fig. 2 Efect of Glycyrrhizae Radix (GR) on pentobarbitalinduced loss of righting refex duration in a mouse model. **a** Efect of GR on the pentobarbital-induced loss of righting refex (LORR) duration in the mouse model. **b** Efect of GR (2000 mg/kg p.o.), on the pentobarbital-induced LORR duration in a mouse model without lipopolysaccharide (LPS) administration. Values are expressed as means + SDs for groups of 10 mice. $P < 0.05$, ***P*<0.01, evaluated using the one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's tests. For the evaluation of the GR efect in a mouse model without LPS administration, Student's t-test was used

Fig. 3 Efect of Glycyrrhizae Radix (GR) on interleukin (IL)-1β, IL-6 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) mRNA levels in the hippocampus. The IL-1β, IL-6 and TNF-α mRNA levels were measured 2 h after treatment with lipopolysaccharide (LPS; 300 µg/kg i.p.). **a** Efect of GR on IL-1β mRNA levels in the hippocampus. **b** Efect

of GR on IL-6 mRNA levels in the hippocampus. **c** Efect of GR on Effect of GR on IL-6 mRNA levels in the hippocampus. $*P < 0.05$, $*P < 0.01$, evaluated using the one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's tests

Fig. 4 Efect of Glycyrrhizae Radix (GR) on the number of ionized calcium-binding adapter molecule-1 (Iba1)-positive cells in the subgranular zone of the hippocampal dentate gyrus in lipopolysaccharide (LPS) treated mice. Iba1-positive cells were counted 24 h after treatment with LPS (300 µg/kg via i.p.). GR was administered orally (2000 mg/kg via p.o.) for two days, a day before and a day after LPS treatment. **a** Graphed the efect of GR on the number of Iba1-positive cells. **b** The effect of GR on tissue each samples from the hippocampus in immunostaining. ***P* < 0.01, evaluated using the two-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's tests. Scale $bar = 100 \mu m$

Fig. 5 Efect of Glycyrrhizae Radix (GR) on the expression of nitric oxide (NO) in lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulated BV2 cells. The expression of NO was measured 24 h after treatment with LPS $(1 \mu g/mL)$ and GR $(0, 50, 100, 200 \mu g/mL)$ or dexamethasone (Dex; 1 µM), as a positive control, in BV2 cells. Values are expressed as means±standard deviations for groups of fve mice. ***P*<0.01 vs. the group, in which only LPS was administered, evaluated using the one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's tests

Efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract for reducing infammatory factors in BV2 cells stimulated with LPS

We investigated the direct effects of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract administration on microglial BV2 cells. As shown in Fig. [5,](#page-6-0) one-way ANOVA revealed a significant drug effect on the NO level $(F(5, 18) = 120.3, P < 0.01)$. LPS administration signifcantly increased the NO level compared to that in control cells (*P*<0.01). Glycyrrhizae Radix extract administration signifcantly decreased the NO level compared to that in LPS-stimulated cells $(50-200 \mu g/mL, P < 0.01)$.

As shown in Fig. [6,](#page-6-1) one-way ANOVAs revealed signifcant drug effects on the levels of IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α (IL-1 β : F(5, 18) = 113, *P* < 0.01; TNF- α : F(5, 18) = 299, *P*<0.01; IL-6: F(5, 18)=44.8, *P*<0.01). LPS stimulation also significantly increased the IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α levels compared to those in control cells (IL-1β, *P*<0.01; IL-6, *P*<0.01; TNF-α, *P*<0.01). Glycyrrhizae Radix extract administration signifcantly decreased the concentrations of IL-1β and IL-6 in LPS-stimulated BV2 cell culture supernatants compared to those in LPS-stimulated cells (IL-1β, 100–200 μg/mL, *P*<0.01; IL-6, 50–200 μg/mL, *P*<0.01; TNF-α, 200 μg/mL, $P < 0.01$).

Efcacy of the active ingredients in Glycyrrhizae Radix for reducing pentobarbital‑induced LORR duration in a mouse model of nerve infammation

We investigated the efficacy of GL and LQ, which are active ingredients of Glycyrrhizae Radix, at concentrations of

Fig. 6 Efect of Glycyrrhizae Radix (GR) on the expression of interleukin (IL)-1β,IL-6 and tumor necrosis factor-alpha (TNF-α) in lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-stimulated BV2 cells. The IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α levels were measured at 24 h after treatment with LPS (1 μ g/ mL) and GR (0, 50, 100, 200 μg/mL) or dexamethasone (Dex;1 μM), as a positive control, in BV2 cells. **a** Efect of GR on the expression

of IL-1β in LPS-stimulated BV2 cells. **b** Efect of GR on the expression of IL-6 in LPS-stimulated BV2 cells. **c** Efect of GR on the expression of TNF-α in LPS-stimulated BV2 cells. ***P* < 0.01 vs. the group, in which only LPS was administered, evaluated using the oneway analysis of variance followed by Tukey's tests

Fig. 7 Effect of Glycyrrhizae Radix (GR; 2000 mg/kg p.o.), glycyrrhizic acid (GL; 50 mg/kg p.o.), and liquiritin (LQ; 25 mg/kg p.o.) on pentobarbital-induced loss of righting refex duration in a mouse model. Values are expressed as means±standard deviations for groups of 10 mice. $*P < 0.01$, evaluated using the one-way analysis of variance followed by Tukey's tests. *LPS* lipopolysaccharide

50 mg/kg. As shown in Fig. [7,](#page-7-0) one-way ANOVA revealed a signifcant drug efect on the duration of pentobarbitalinduced LORR $(F(4, 45)=6.1, P<0.01)$. LPS treatment signifcantly increased the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR compared to that in the control group $(P < 0.01)$. The administration of GL and LQ signifcantly decreased the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR compared to that in the LPS-treated group $(P < 0.01)$, with no difference between the GL and LQ groups $(P=0.99)$.

Discussion

Here, we examined the effects of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract on the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR, as well as histological changes in the hippocampus. Our data suggest that Glycyrrhizae Radix extract reduced the LORR duration and had an anti-inflammatory efficacy on the hippocampus. Further, GL and LQ, active ingredients of Glycyrrhizae Radix, decreased the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR in a mouse model of nerve infammation. In addition, treatment with Glycyrrhizae Radix extract suppressed the release of NO, IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- α from BV2 cells, which were stimulated with LPS.

Based on a previous study, effects on post-surgical neuroinfammatory conditions can be assessed by evaluating the effect on the pentobarbital-induced LORR duration enhanced by diazepam and neuroinfammation [[12\]](#page-9-8). Thus, we consider this to be a suitable model to evaluate antineuroinfammatory drug efects. In the present study, Glycyrrhizae Radix extract reduced infammatory responses in the hippocampus; additionally, Glycyrrhizae Radix, as well as its active ingredients, GL and LQ, decreased the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR. Therefore, Glycyrrhizae Radix, GL, and LQ have anti-neuroinfammatory efects, suggesting an ability to inhibit excessive GABA activity associated with brain infammation. In addition, we assessed the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR without LPS administration, as Glycyrrhizae Radix alone may affect GABA receptors [[24](#page-9-19)]. However, we found that Glycyrrhizae Radix alone had no efect on the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR without LPS administration (Fig. [2\)](#page-4-0). Therefore, the inhibitory efect of Glycyrrhizae Radix on GABA activity may be mediated by the inhibition of neuroinfammation.

In a clinical study, 900 mg Glycyrrhizae Radix extract was administered three times daily for 7 days to patients with acute ischemic stroke, leading to neurological improvement [[25\]](#page-9-20). In the current study, 1000 mg/kg Glycyrrhizae Radix extract was administered to mice for 3 days, once daily. The human equivalent dose for mice has been reported to be 12.3 times the surface area $[26]$ $[26]$; thus, the dose of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract used in the present study was within the clinically used dose range. Future studies are required to investigate the anti-neuroinflammatory efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract in clinical practice.

LPS activates the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF-α, via toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), and leads to neuronal apoptosis [[27,](#page-9-22) [28](#page-9-23)]. LPS increases TLR4 expression in microglia, suggesting that peripheral LPS can infuence brain infammation [[9\]](#page-9-5). In addition, LPS administration increases Iba1 positivity, a microglial infammation marker, in the hippocampus of mice [[7,](#page-9-3) [12\]](#page-9-8). In a previous study, some ingredients of Glycyrrhizae Radix suppressed LPS-induced infammation by preventing the inhibition of nuclear factor-kappa B degradation and inhibiting p65 translocation, which are downstream signals of TLR4 [[15\]](#page-9-11). Thus, Glycyrrhizae Radix may have anti-neuroinfammatory efects on the hippocampus and reduce the LORR duration via these anti-infammatory signals. In a previous study, LPS led to microglia activation without monocyte recruitment in the thalamus [[29](#page-9-24)]. However, we did not evaluate the anti-infammatory efects of Glycyrrhizae Radix in the thalamus and hypothalamus, which are involved in sleep and wakefulness. Future studies are required to investigate the anti-neuroinfammatory efects of Glycyrrhizae Radix in other brain regions, such as the thalamus and hypothalamus.

Glycyrrhizae Radix is a traditional medicine, and licorice is known to have anti-infammatory, antibacterial, antioxidant, antiviral, and expectorant properties [\[17,](#page-9-13) [30\]](#page-9-25). GL and LQ are well-known biologically active components of Glycyrrhizae Radix, and these components also exert antiinflammatory effects $[17]$ $[17]$. In the present study, we showed that GL and LQ partially decrease the duration of pentobarbital-induced LORR, which suggests that the Glycyrrhizae Radix ingredients, GL and LQ, impede the generation of various infammatory mediators produced by activated macrophages/microglia. Accordingly, Glycyrrhizae Radix extract could be a good treatment option to suppress nerve infammation in the hippocampus. Other ingredients in Glycyrrhizae Radix, such as liquiritigenin and glabridin, may also have anti-neuroinflammatory effects, as such effects have been reported for these ingredients [[17\]](#page-9-13). Future studies are required to investigate the anti-neuroinfammatory efects of other Glycyrrhizae Radix ingredients.

In the present study, we evaluated the efficacy of Glycyrrhizae Radix extract for reducing microglial infammation in LPS-stimulated BV2 microglial cells. Nerve infammation is a typical feature of many neurodegenerative diseases, including delirium, Alzheimer's disease, and Parkinson's disease [\[3](#page-9-0)[–5](#page-9-1)]. Infamed microglia release infammatory factors, such as TNF- α , IL-6, and NO, which can damage nerve cells [\[31](#page-9-26)]. NO is a type of free radical and is involved in microgliamediated infammatory processes in the central nervous system [\[32](#page-9-27)]. The fndings of the current study showed that Glycyrrhizae Radix extract signifcantly reduces NO release. In addition, Glycyrrhizae Radix signifcantly decreased inflammatory cytokines, such as IL-1β, IL-6, and TNF- $α$, in terms of both mRNA gene expression and secreted protein levels. Therefore, the fndings of the present study suggest that Glycyrrhizae Radix can directly act on microglia.

In a previous study, we showed that Yokukansan and GL have anti-neuroinflammatory effects [[11\]](#page-9-7). However, Yokukansan consists of seven medicinal herbs that have reported anti-infammatory properties [[33–](#page-9-28)[39\]](#page-10-0). Further, the amount of GL administered in our previous study was higher than the amount of GL in Yokukansan [\[12\]](#page-9-8). Therefore, GL alone could not fully explain the efect of Yokukansan on nerve infammation. In the present study, we investigated whether Glycyrrhizae Radix and its ingredients have antineuroinfammatory efects in the hippocampus because it is a component of Yokukansan and contains GL, which has been reported to reach the brain [[31\]](#page-9-26). Treatment with Glycyrrhizae Radix, as well as its active ingredients, GL and LQ, signifcantly reduced the duration of pentobarbitalinduced LORR and had anti-neuroinflammatory efficacy in the hippocampus in our mouse model of nerve infammation. Therefore, Glycyrrhizae Radix, GL and LQ, may be efective

therapeutic agents for the treatment of nerve infammationinduced neurological disorders. Additionally, Glycyrrhizae Radix is more commonly used worldwide than Yokukansan; accordingly, Glycyrrhizae Radix may be easier to apply as a therapeutic drug for neurological disorders. However, other constituents of Glycyrrhizae Radix may also contribute to its reported anti-neuroinfammatory efects. Further studies are required to investigate the efficacy of the other active ingredients of Glycyrrhizae Radix.

In conclusion, our results suggest that Glycyrrhizae Radix administration inhibits infammation in the hippocampus and can be used as a therapeutic drug for the treatment of nerve infammation-induced neurological disorders. However, further clinical trials are required to confrm these fndings in humans, as the present study utilized a mouse model.

Supplementary Information The online version contains supplementary material available at<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11418-023-01700-2>.

Author contributions KK: conceptualization, methodology, Investigation, writing—original draft, project administration, funding acquisition. TI: conceptualization, methodology, formal analysis, investigation, writing—review and editing. KJ: validation, investigation, resources, writing—review and editing. SM: investigation. TK: investigation. MN: investigation. SN: investigation. NT: investigation. SY: investigation, data curation. MM: resources, writing—review and editing, supervision.

Funding This work was supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant Number 20H01008.

Data availability The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

Code availability Not applicable.

Material availability Not applicable.

Declarations

Conflict of interest The authors have no competing interests to declare that are relevant to the content of this article.

Ethical approval Animal experiments were approved by the Committee for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals at Kochi University (approval no. O-0009, April 23, 2021).

Informed consent Not applicable.

References

- 1. Alam A, Hana Z, Jin Z, Suen KC, Ma D (2018) Surgery, neuroinfammation and cognitive impairment. EBioMedicine 37:547–556
- 2. Yang T, Velagapudi R, Terrando N (2020) Neuroinfammation after surgery: from mechanisms to therapeutic targets. Nat Immunol 21:1319–1326
- 3. Minter MR, Taylor JM, Crack PJ (2016) The contribution of neuroinfammation to amyloid toxicity in Alzheimer's disease. J Neurochem 136:457–474
- 4. Bright F, Werry EL, Dobson-Stone C, Piguet O, Ittner LM, Halliday GM, Hodges JR, Kiernan MC, Loy CT, Kassiou M, Kril JJ (2019) Neuroinfammation in frontotemporal dementia. Nat Rev Neurol 15:540–555
- 5. Troubat R, Barone P, Leman S, Desmidt T, Cressant A, Atanasova B, Brizard B, El Hage W, Surget A, Belzung C, Camus V (2021) Neuroinfammation and depression: a review. Eur J Neurosci 53:151–171
- 6. Henry CJ, Huang Y, Wynne A, Hanke M, Himler J, Bailey MT, Sheridan JF, Godbout JP (2008) Minocycline attenuates lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-induced neuroinfammation, sickness behavior, and anhedonia. J Neuroinfammation 5:15
- 7. Kitamura Y, Hongo S, Yamashita Y, Yagi S, Otsuki K, Miki A, Okada A, Ushio S, Esumi S, Sendo T (2019) Infuence of lipopolysaccharide on diazepam-modifed loss of righting refex duration by pentobarbital treatment in mice. Eur J Pharmacol 842:231–238
- 8. Hellstrom IC, Danik M, Luheshi GN, Williams S (2005) Chronic LPS exposure produces changes in intrinsic membrane properties and a sustained IL-beta-dependent increase in GABAergic inhibition in hippocampal CA1 pyramidal neurons. Hippocampus 15:656–664
- 9. Cazareth J, Guyon A, Heurteaux C, Chabry J, Petit-Paitel A (2014) Molecular and cellular neuroinfammatory status of mouse brain after systemic lipopolysaccharide challenge: importance of CCR2/CCL2 signaling. J Neuroinfammation 11:132
- 10. Maldonado JR (2013) Neuropathogenesis of delirium: review of current etiologic theories and common pathways. Am J Geriatr Psychiatry 21:1190–1222
- 11. Olkkola KT, Ahonen J (2008) Midazolam and other benzodiazepines. Handb Exp Pharmacol 182:335–360
- 12. Kawada K, Ishida T, Jobu K, Morisawa S, Kawazoe T, Nishida M, Nishimura S, Tamura N, Yoshioka S, Miyamura M (2022) Yokukansan suppresses neuroinfammation in the hippocampus of mice and decreases the duration of lipopolysaccharide- and diazepam-mediated loss of righting refex induced by pentobarbital. J Nat Med 76:634–644
- 13. Cao Y, Wang Y, Ji C, Ye J (2004) Determination of liquiritigenin and isoliquiritigenin in *Glycyrrhiza uralensis* and its medicinal preparations by capillary electrophoresis with electrochemical detection. J Chromatogr A 1042:203–209
- 14. Kao TC, Wu CH, Yen GC (2014) Bioactivity and potential health benefts of licorice. J Agric Food Chem 62:542–553
- 15. Yang R, Yuan BC, Ma YS, Zhou S, Liu Y (2017) The antiinfammatory activity of licorice, a widely used Chinese herb. Pharm Biol 55:5–18
- 16. Petramfar P, Hajari F, Yousef G, Azadi S, Hamedi A (2020) Efficacy of oral administration of licorice as an adjunct therapy on improving the symptoms of patients with Parkinson's disease, a randomized double blinded clinical trial. J Ethnopharmacol 247:112226
- 17. Yu JY, Ha JY, Kim KM, Jung YS, Jung JC, Oh S (2015) Antiinfammatory activities of licorice extract and its active compounds, glycyrrhizic acid, liquiritin and liquiritigenin, in BV2 cells and mice liver. Molecules 20:13041–13054
- 18. Darias V, Abdala S, Martin-Herrera D, Tello ML, Vega S (1998) CNS efects of a series of 1,2,4-triazolyl heterocarboxylic derivatives. Pharmazie 53:477–481
- 19. Wolfman C, Viola H, Marder M, Wasowski C, Ardenghi P, Izquierdo I, Paladini AC, Medina JH (1996) Anxioselective properties of 6,3'-dinitroflavone, a high-affinity benzodiazepine receptor ligand. Eur J Pharmacol 318:23–30
- 20. Hui B, Yao X, Zhang L, Zhou Q (2020) Dexamethasone sodium phosphate attenuates lipopolysaccharide-induced neuroinfammation in microglia BV2 cells. Naunyn Schmiedebergs Arch Pharmacol 393:1761–1768
- 21. Kawada K, Ohta T, Tanaka K, Miyamura M, Tanaka S (2019) Addition of suvorexant to ramelteon therapy for improved sleep quality with reduced delirium risk in acute stroke patients. J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis 28:142–148
- 22. Kanda Y (2013) Investigation of the freely available easy-to-use software "EZR" for medical statistics. Bone Marrow Transplant 48:452–458
- 23. Kawada K, Ohta T, Tanaka K, Miyamoto N (2018) Reduction of nicardipine-related phlebitis in patients with acute stroke by diluting its concentration. J Stroke Cerebrovasc Dis 27:1783–1788
- 24. Jang EY, Choe ES, Hwang M, Kim SC, Lee JR, Kim SG, Jeon JP, Buono RJ, Yang CH (2008) Isoliquiritigenin suppresses cocaine-induced extracellular dopamine release in rat brain through GABA(B) receptor. Eur J Pharmacol 587:124–128
- 25. Ravanfar P, Namazi G, Atigh M, Zafarmand S, Hamedi A, Salehi A, Izadi S, Borhani-Haghighi A (2016) Efficacy of whole extract of licorice in neurological improvement of patients after acute ischemic stroke. J Herb Med 6:12–17
- 26. Nair AB, Jacob S (2016) A simple practice guide for dose conversion between animals and human. J Basic Clin Pharm 7:27–31
- 27. Dehkordi NG, Noorbakhshnia M, Ghaedi K, Esmaeili A, Dabaghi M (2015) Omega-3 fatty acids prevent LPS-induced passive avoidance learning and memory and $CaMKII-\alpha$ gene expression impairments in hippocampus of rat. Pharmacol Rep 67:370–375
- 28. Mirahmadi SM, Shahmohammadi A, Rousta AM, Azadi MR, Fahanik-Babaei J, Baluchnejadmojarad T, Roghani M (2018) Soy isofavone genistein attenuates lipopolysaccharide-induced cognitive impairments in the rat via exerting anti-oxidative and anti-infammatory efects. Cytokine 104:151–159
- 29. Vegeto E, Belcredito S, Etteri S, Ghisletti S, Brusadelli A, Meda C, Krust A, Dupont S, Ciana P, Chambon P, Maggi A (2003) Estrogen receptor-alpha mediates the brain antiinfammatory activity of estradiol. Proc Natl Acad Sci USA 100:9614–9619
- 30. Gumpricht E, Dahl R, Devereaux MW, Sokol RJ (2005) Licorice compounds glycyrrhizin and 18β-glycyrrhetinic acid are potent modulators of bile acid-induced cytotoxicity in rat hepatocytes. J Biol Chem 280:10556–10563
- 31. Smith JA, Das A, Ray SK, Banik NL (2012) Role of pro-infammatory cytokines released from microglia in neurodegenerative diseases. Brain Res Bull 87:10–20
- 32. Subedi L, Gaire BP, Kim S-Y, Parveen A (2021) Nitric oxide as a target for phytochemicals in anti-neuroinfammatory prevention therapy. Int J Mol Sci 22:4771
- 33. Ikarashi Y, Mizoguchi K (2016) Neuropharmacological efficacy of the traditional Japanese Kampo medicine yokukansan and its active ingredients. Pharmacol Ther 166:84–95
- 34. Furuya M, Miyaoka T, Tsumori T, Liaury K, Hashioka S, Wake R, Tsuchie K, Fukushima M, Ezoe S, Horiguchi J (2013) Yokukansan promotes hippocampal neurogenesis associated with the suppression of activated microglia in Gunn rat. J Neuroinfammation 10:145
- 35. Cheng CY, Ho TY, Lee EJ, Su SY, Tang NY, Hsieh CL (2008) Ferulic acid reduces cerebral infarct through its antioxidative and anti-infammatory efects following transient focal cerebral ischemia in rats. Am J Chin Med 36:1105–1119
- 36. Khaksa G, Zolfaghari ME, Dehpour AR, Samadian T (1996) Anti-infammatory and anti-nociceptive activity of disodium glycyrrhetinic acid hemiphthalate. Planta Med 62:326–328
- 37. Nukaya H, Yamashiro H, Fukazawa H, Ishida H, Tsuji K (1996) Isolation of inhibitors of TPA-induced mouse ear edema from Hoelen, Poria cocos. Chem Pharm Bull (Tokyo) 44:847–849
- 38. Seo MJ, Kim SJ, Kang TH, Rim HK, Jeong HJ, Um JY, Hong SH, Kim HM (2011) The regulatory mechanism of β-eudesmol is through the suppression of caspase-1 activation in mast cellmediated infammatory response. Immunopharmacol Immunotoxicol 33:178–185
- 39. Yuan D, Ma B, Yang JY, Xie YY, Wang L, Zhang LJ, Kano Y, Wu CF (2009) Anti-infammatory efects of rhynchophylline and isorhynchophylline in mouse N9 microglial cells and the molecular mechanism. Int Immunopharmacol 9:1549–2155

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.